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ABSTRACT

This document contains four papers from a symposium on leadership and executive development. The study reported in "Leadership and Culture: Work-Related Values and Leadership Styles among U.S. and German Employees" (K. Peter Kuchinke) revealed only a weak correlation between cultural values and leadership styles. Critical incident technique was used to examine the learning triggers, strategies, and meaning made of learning experiences in "Making the Tacit Explicit: Constructing Meaning from Learning Experiences of Senior Managers of Romanian Private Companies in the Transition to a Free-Market Economy" (Maria Cseh). "Behaviors Related to Perceptions of Leadership in Self-directed Project Groups" (Judith A. Kolb) reports the development of a leader emergence scale used to gather information on individuals identified as preferred group leaders. "Never Let Them See You Smile: The Lack of Expressiveness among Senior Organizational Leaders" (Jamie Callahan Fabian) reports on a study of 781 male and 669 female organizational leaders in which males reported themselves to be significantly more expressive than females, although both groups reported extremely low levels of expressiveness. (KC)

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22 Leadership & Executive Development

Chair: Reid A. Bates, Louisiana State University

Leadership and Culture: Work-Related Values and Leadership Styles Among U. S. and German Employees

K. Peter Kuchinke, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Making the Tacit Explicit: Constructing Meaning from Learning Experiences of Senior Managers of Romanian Private Companies in the Transition to a Free-Market Economy

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Never Let Them See You Smile: The Lack of Expressiveness Among Senior Organizational Leaders

Jamie Callahan Fabian, George Washington University

ACADEMY OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

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March 4 - March 8, 1998
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Leadership and Culture: Work-Related Values and Leadership Styles Among U.S. and German Employees

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This survey-based study examined within- and between-country differences in work-related values and leadership styles of U.S. and German telecommunication employee. The results showed country- and job level effects for cultural values and leadership styles, but only weak intercorrelation between the two constructs. The study points to patterns of work-related values different from those predicted by earlier research and identifies developmental needs in leadership among first line supervisors

Despite the rapidly increasing globalization of business and industry, there is a dearth of cross-national and cross-cultural comparative social science research to answer the questions faced by organizations operating in increasingly complex and fast-changing international and multi-cultural environments and to provide guidance for practice. In the field of International Human Resource Development (IHRD) this lack is especially keenly felt (e.g.: Hansen & Brooks, 1994; McLean, 1991; Peterson, 1997), but also in the related fields of Human Resource Management (e.g.: Brewster, Tregaskis, Hegewich, & Mayne, 1996) and Organizational Behavior (e.g.: Lytle, Brett, Barsness, Tinsely, & Janssens, 1995). Among the reasons for to this paucity are the lack of global constructs and theories, the complexity of measuring country-level effects, and difficulties of research design.

This comparative, cross-national, and cross-cultural study expands the body of knowledge of IHRD by testing a series of hypotheses related to leadership and work-related values of U.S. and German telecommunication employees of a global organization. The choice of these two countries was dictated by the strong economic, historical, political, and cultural ties between these two nations and the researcher's familiarity with and interest in both nations. Moreover, there has been a great degree of cross-fertilization of ideas related to each other's HRD-related practices in areas ranging from general and higher education, to apprenticeship training, labor-management relations, and work-related policies and practices.

The study focused on three distinct research questions: (1) the degree of variance of cultural, work-related norms and values both within and between the two countries; (2) the level of variance in leadership styles and behaviors within and between the two countries; and (3) the intercorrelation of work-related values and leadership styles. The research design allowed for three levels of analysis for each problem: (1) country-level comparisons of culture and leadership, comparing the two U.S. sites and the German site; (2) within-country comparisons of the two US sites comparing the sites located in the Mid-Western and the Eastern parts of the country; and (3) within-site comparisons of three levels of job categories at each of the three sites. The results provided a comprehensive set of answers related to the differences in work-related values and leadership styles and their intercorrelation by nation, by site within the U.S., and by job category within each site.

Summary of Previous Research

The concept of culture is central to the study of groups and nations and has been used in IHRD and international management to measure country- and group-level effects that can discriminate between countries and groups and thus help explain variance in the behavior or organizations and people. Culture has been conceptualized as a complex web of norms, values, assumptions, attitudes, and beliefs that are characteristic of a particular group and are reinforced and perpetuated through socialization, training, rewards, and sanctions (Lytle et al., 1995). Culture constitutes the successful attempt to adapt to the external environment, it presents the group's strategy for survival (Triandis, 1994), and has been described as the "software of the mind" (Hofstede, 1991,

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p. 3). Researchers have described a wide variety of categories of cultural dimensions (see Lytle et al., 1995), and it is generally accepted that individuals can belong to any number of social groups each with its own set of norms and values (Kostova, 1997).

Among the most popular frameworks for studying international culture has been that of Geert Hofstede who published a ground-breaking study of some 116,000 IBM employees in 40 countries surveyed in 1968 and 1972 (Hofstede, 1980) and used factor-analytic techniques to arrive at four dimensions of culture as related to work organizations: power distance, individualism, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance. Hofstede later (Hofstede & Bond, 1989) added a fifth dimension, long-term orientation, which is a part of Confucian Dynamism. The framework has been applied and replicated over 60 times and the country differences predicted by Hofstede have been by and large confirmed (Søndergaard, 1994).

The scholarly and practitioner literatures, by and large, have treated the country scores published by Hofstede (1980) from research with one company in the late 1960s and early 1970s as valid today and as generalizable to the entire U.S. and Germany, despite the fact that most replication studies were conducted in other countries. Given the single data point presented by Hofstede's work and the dramatic political changes in both countries over the past 30 years, a replication of the original research, as conducted in this study, was warranted.

The popularity of Hofstede's work has further led to the oversight of possible within-country differences in work-related values, for instance by region or by position within an organization. While Hofstede (1980) acknowledged the possibility that the scores of the original dimensions of culture were artifacts of the sample, little research has been conducted to test the level of homogeneity of work-related values in other samples. This study accomplished this task by comparing two U.S. sites to one another and each of the three sites by job category and thus presents an extension of the original work.

Although several hundred definitions of leadership exist (Stogdill 1990), more recently the focus of research has shifted to a new class of outstanding leadership theories (House & Podsakoff, 1994) that takes as its core idea the concept of charisma, defined early in this century by German sociologist Weber (1924/1947) as the leader's authority based on "devotion...[exemplary character [and] of the normative patterns or order revealed by him (sic)" (p. 328). Based on this notion, Bass (1985) and colleagues developed a theory of transformational leadership, distinguishing between transformational leadership (and its components charisma, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and inspirational motivation); transactional leadership (contingent reward and management-by-exception); and laissez-faire (or non-) leadership. Transformational leadership is said to exert an augmentation effect, that is to add to the levels of productivity, satisfaction, and effectiveness associated with transformational leadership alone (Avolio, Bass, and Jung, 1995). The factor structure of the theory has been confirmed in many replications and the instrument refined and translated into a number of languages.

None of the replications, however, addressed possible differences in leadership style by site, by population within site, or by country. Focusing on single-country, single-site research settings, the theory has not been tested in light of possible differences in leadership styles by level within the organization or by region, and scant attention has been paid to differences in transformational leadership style by country. This study accomplished this by testing for differences in leadership styles within and between sites and countries.

A third purpose for the study was to empirically test whether specific work-related values were related to specific leadership styles. While the topic of culture and leadership has received much theoretical attention in the literature (e.g.: Hofstede, 1980; Schein, 1985; Triandis, 1994), little empirical research exists relating specific cultural values to specific styles of transformational or transactional leadership.

Research Setting, Design, and Methodology

The study was conducted using a causal-comparative, ex-post-facto, one-shot survey design. The population consisted of the 5,400 employees at three manufacturing sites of a Fortune 500 multi-national telecommunication organization headquartered in the U.S. The three sites were located in Ohio (OH), New Jersey (NJ), and Nürnberg/Germany (NU) and reported to the same U.S.- based Vice President of Operations. All three sites were involved in manufacturing telecommunication transmission equipment, had like technologies and work processes, and

identical work policies and procedures. The sites differed in size and age, the OH site was the largest and oldest, the NJ site the smallest and youngest. In consultation with representatives at the three sites, a survey was administered to a stratified, non-proportional, random sample of the population, using Hofstede's 1994 version of the Value Survey Module, VSM 94 (Hofstede, n.d.), Bass and Avolio's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, MLQ5x (Avolio, Bass, and Jung, 1995),and a series of standard demographic questions. Both the VSM 94 and the MLQ5x were obtained from the authors in English and German and given to the participants in their native language. The survey was administered to 3,540 employees (66% of population) and yielded an overall response rate of 53% (Table 1). The error limit associated with this response is less than plus/minus 3 percent overall and ranges from plus/minus 2% to plus/minus 10% for specific subpopulations. Chi-square tests of demographic information of respondents with information obtained from the sites' personnel information system showed that survey respondents were representative of the plant population with the exception of the overrepresentation of women in the sample. In addition to the survey, a series of open-ended interviews were conducted at each site to obtain contextual information. The data were analyzed and feedback sessions conducted at each of the three sites with managers, engineers, and production employees. The feedback sessions resulted in action plans at each site to improve leadership styles and collaboration within and among the three sites.

Table 1
Sample Sizes, Responses and Response Rates by Job Category and Location

Site/Job Category	Ohio		New Jersey		Nürnberg		Total	
	Initial Sample	Res-ponse	Initial Sample	Res-ponse	Initial Sample	Res-ponse	Initial Sample	Res-ponse
Production Employees	939	196 (21%)	255	122 (48%)	745	528 (71%)	1,939	846 (44%)
Engineers	305	131 (43%)	134	34 (25%)	800	468 (59%)	1,239	633 (51%)
Managers	186	105 (56%)	23	6 (26%)	150	53 (35%)	359	164 (46%)
Invalid/No Answers		6 (<1%)		25 (6%)		198 (12%)		229 (6%)
Total	1,430	438 (31%)	412	187 (45%)	1,695	1247 (74%)	3,537	1872 (53%)

Note: Percentages based on Initial Sample Size Row Totals

Results

Demographic information collected from the 1,872 survey respondents revealed differences by site and by job category for gender, age, level of education, union membership, and tenure in the current job category. The "typical" survey respondent was male, between 30 and 39 years of age, had a high school diploma with on-the-job training or a two-year technical degree, was unionized, and had been in the present job category longer than 10 years. This profile of the typical participant reflects the comparatively large percentage of production employees, the demographic profiles of engineers and mangers differ (higher level of education, shorter job tenure, and no union membership.) Because the New Jersey plant had been built less than 5 years ago, its population was the youngest in terms of age and job tenure. The overall education level at the Nürnberg plant was higher than at the two U.S. sites because of its larger percentage of engineers and the fact that the lowest academic degree in Germany is comparable to the Master's degree in the U.S.

The scores for leadership styles and work-related values were calculated based on the formulae provided by the test authors; test statistics for the leadership scales revealed ranges of the mean scores and standard deviations similar to those attained in previous studies, with measures

of internal consistency (Chronbach's alpha) ranging from α = .68 to α = .83, meeting the generally expected level of α = .7. Means and standard deviations for the culture dimensions varied from previously published studies, and Chronbach alphas were also above a = .7 for four of the five dimensions. The Power Distance scales yielded only an only marginally acceptable alpha scores (α = .56) even after one of the four scale items was deleted from the analysis. As predicted by the theory, the four transformational leadership scales were highly and positively intercorrelated, while transactional and the non-leadership factors were negatively correlated with transformation leadership. There were only marginal ($r < .2$) correlations between the cultural dimensions, suggesting the independence of the dimensions from one another.

Differences in cultural values and leadership styles Because demographic variables were shown to have main effects on leadership and culture, they were statistically controlled for in the Analyses of Covariance (ANCOVA) models used to test for differences in these constructs within, among, and between sites. Each ANCOVA was conducted three times: (1) by merging the two U.S. sites and comparing them to the German site to test for country effects; (2) by comparing the New Jersey and Ohio sites to test for regional, within-country effects; and (3) for each of the three sites by job category to test for job category effects. Follow-up pairwise tests were conducted using the Bonferroni procedure.

The study found country-level effects for three of the five culture dimensions: Power Distance (Germany higher), Individualism (U.S. higher), and Masculinity (U.S. higher). There were no differences in the levels of Uncertainty Avoidance or Long-term Orientation (Table 2). These findings depart from the results reported in Hofstede's (1980) original research where the U.S. sample had scored higher in Power Distance and where the differences in the two countries' scores for Masculinity and Uncertainty Avoidance had been much greater. The country-level analyses also showed that production employees and engineers in the two countries differed, while U.S. and German managers' scores did not.

Table 2
Analysis of Covariance for Culture Dimensions (N=1,892); Hofstede's (1980) Scores in (Brackets)

	M		F
Dimension	U.S.	Germ.	
Power Distance	29.05	35.21	13.10***
	(40)	(35)	
Individualism	79.07	53.18	165.2***
	(91)	(67)	
Masculinity	10.51	-19.96	52.05***
	(62)	(66)	
Uncertainty Avoidance	102.55	105.06	2.15 ns
	(46)	(65)	
Long-term Orientation	43.00	43.84	.07 ns
	(29)	(31)	

Levels of Significance: *** .001; ** .01; * .05

When comparing culture and leadership scores of the two U.S. sites, testing hypotheses related to regional (within the U.S.) differences, the results showed differences in Power Distance (Ohio site higher) for production employees and engineers. None of the other culture dimension scores differed in the ANCOVA model.

The study also tested for within-site differences in work-related values. Here, the results differed by site: At the New Jersey plant, no differences were found for any of the five culture dimensions among managers, engineers, and production employees. At the Ohio site, managers scored lower on Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance than the rest of the organization, while production employees scored the lowest on individualism (Table 3).

Table 3
Comparison of Within-Site Difference in Culture Dimensions: Ohio (N=438)

Dimension	M			F	Pairwise Comparisons
	Production Employees	Engineers	Managers		
PDI	43.73	36.40	19.55	5.86**	E>M;P>M
IND	66.14	88.35	93.17	67.07***	E>P;M>P
MAS	3.41	10.87	1.29	.47 ns	-
UAI	118.94	102.32	78.71	8.67***	E>M;P>M
LTO	43.48	46.68	47.10	.06 ns	-

PDI: Power Distance, IND: Individualism; MAS: Masculinity; UAI: Uncertainty Avoidance; LTO: Long-term Orientation; Significance Levels: *** .001; ** .01; * .05
P: Production Employees, E: Engineers, M: Managers

At the German site (Table 4) , managers also scored lower on the Uncertainty Avoidance scale, and there were differences in the level of Individualism (production employees lower than engineers), Masculinity (production employees higher than engineers), and Long-term Orientation (managers higher than production staff).

Table 4
Comparisons of Within-Site Culture Dimensions by Job Category: Nürnberg (N=1,247)

Dimension	M			F	Pairwise Comparisons
	Production Employees	Engineers	Managers		
PDI	34.49	33.53	36.37	.04 ns	—
IND	46.44	61.94	56.15	4.68***	E>P
MAS	-10.61	-34.20	-14.71	6.48**	P>E
UAI	100.68	108.45	76.40	8.51***	P>M; E>M
LTO	40.68	45.80	60.67	4.04**	M>P

PDI: Power Distance, IND: Individualism; MAS: Masculinity; UAI: Uncertainty Avoidance; LTO: Long-term Orientation; Significance Levels: *** .001;** .01; * .05
P: Production Employees, E: Engineers, M: Managers

Country-level effects were also found for the transformational leadership dimensions of Charisma and Inspirational Motivation (U.S. higher), as well as for Intellectual Stimulation (Germany higher). These differences were found among production employees and engineers, but not among mangers.

When comparing leadership styles of the two U.S. sites, the only differences were between NJ engineers who scored higher on Management-by-Exception than their counterparts at the OH site, and NJ managers who scored higher on Management-by-Excpetion and Laissez-Faire Leadership than their OH peers.

With respect to leadership, the NJ site yielded a homogeneous picture and no differences were found among the three employee groups. At the Ohio (Table 5) and the German (Table 6) sites, managers scored higher on transformational leadership styles than did engineers and production employees.

Table 5
Comparison of Within-Site Differences in Leadership: Ohio (N=432)

	M			F	Pairwise Comparisons
	Product.Employ.	Engineer	Managers		
TFL	2.22	2.37	2.44	4.15*	M>P
CHA	2.31	2.55	2.72	3.25*	M>P
MOT	2.54	2.72	2.79	.81 ns	
STM	2.05	2.18	2.62	8.36***	M>P;M>E
CONS	1.99	2.17	2.44	3.83*	M>P
TAL	1.79	1.63	1.67	1.08 ns	
REW	2.22	2.24	2.44	1.32 ns	
MBE	1.57	1.32	1.30	2.67 ns	
LFL	1.06	.87	.76	2.35 ns	

Table 6
Comparison of Within-Site Differences in Leadership: Nürnberg (N=1,247)

	M			F	Pairwise Comparisons
	Product. Employ.	Engineers	Managers		
TFL	2.31	2.14	2.39	3.32*	M>E
CHA	2.31	2.05	2.40	4.61*	P>E; M>E
MOT	2.40	2.11	2.42	5.63**	P>E; M>E
STM	2.40	2.26	2.43	.99 ns	—
CONS	2.21	2.11	2.26	.89 ns	—
TAL	1.73	1.64	1.65	.40 ns	—
REW	2.32	2.07	2.27	1.15 ns	—
MBE	1.53	1.48	1.39	1.32 ns	—
LFL	.97	1.05	1.01	.06 ns	

Significance Levels: *** .001; ** .01; * .05
TFL: Transformational Leadership; CHA: Charisma; MOT: Inspirational Motivation
STM: Intellectual Stimulation; CONS: Individual Consideration; TAL: Transactional Leadership; REW: Contingent Reward; MBE: Management-by-Exception; LFL: Laissez-faire Leadership; P: Production Employees, E: Engineers, M: Managers.

Correlational Analyses of Culture and Leadership Partial correlation analyses, controlling for demographic variables, were conducted to measure the relationship between cultural dimensions and leadership. As before, these analyses were conducted at the country, regional, and site levels. Overall, the analyses failed to show significant relationships between the two constructs. Where significant, partial correlation coefficients rarely exceeded r = .2, suggesting spurious relationships and artifacts of the sample size. Low- to medium correlations were, however, found for the U.S. engineers (both U.S. sites combined) where Power Distance and transformational leadership dimensions were positively correlated (r's ranging from .31 to .41). Correlations of similar size were also found at the German plant managers for the relationships between Individualism and Transactional Reward and Intellectual Stimulation and Long-term Orientation.

These results show a generally limited intercorrelation between culture and leadership, except for U.S. engineers and German managers.

Implications for Research and Practice

This study has implications for practice at two levels. For the organization, it yielded a fine-grained analysis of work-related values and leadership styles. As the three plants are moving toward closer cooperation with one another, these measurements of culture and leadership gave voice to areas of similarities and differences, resulted in action planning to reduce the high levels of uncertainty avoidance and to raise the use of transformational styles of leadership, and set a baseline for measuring progress over time.

Although the study did not generalize beyond the walls of the three sites, it has implications for HRD professionals working within the U.S. and internationally. First, as this study shows, work-related values differ by country, by region, and by level within the organization. Further, these differences change over time. The study of culture is in its infancy; assuming that Hofstede's results, or those of any other cross-cultural study (including this one) can apply to an untested population appears, therefore, as a dangerous and unwarranted overgeneralization. In working with different groups, whether nationally or internationally, where work related values are of importance, HRD professionals are well advised to conduct measurements like the ones used in this study in order to tailor the intervention to their specific cultures. A similar argument appears warranted for expatriate training: given the amount of within-country variance of culture, an assessment of the specific work-related values of the host culture will provide the most valid and reliable information.

This study found a predominance of transactional leadership styles among production employees. Given the clear link between transformational leadership and increased performance and quality of work life, this finding, if borne out in other settings, suggests a developmental agenda for first-line supervisors, team leaders, and those in charge of production employees who, historically, have received the least amount of formal training and development.

The study also has clear implications for theory and points to future research needs. In this study, work-related values were neither uniformly distributed nor shared within the two countries, raising questions about the utility of the construct of national culture in multi-cultural societies like the U.S. and Germany. Further, one of Hofstede's measures returned unacceptably low internal reliability measures, calling into questions the validity of the underlying construct.

Related to leadership theory, the study suggests the existence of heterogeneity of leadership styles within the same organization, with clearly lower levels of transformational styles among German employees and among U.S. and German production workers. Finally, the moderate-size correlation between transformational leadership and high power distance among German engineers suggests a possible limitation to the extent to which transformational leadership can be implemented in that group. Despite the general trend toward more participatory and egalitarian working relationships, leadership through a strong vision and identification with the leaders might not be accepted in all situations.

The agenda for future research suggested by this study focuses on the need to more clearly define the culture construct and develop reliable and valid measures, to better understand the limitation that work-related values might place on transformational leadership, and to investigate the reasons for the low levels of transformational leadership among production employees.

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Making the Tacit Explicit: Constructing Meaning from Learning Experiences of Senior Managers of Romanian Private Companies in the Transition to a Free-Market Economy

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This paper provides a preliminary report of a study on managerial learning. The critical incident technique was used to examine learning experiences of senior managers of small Romanian private companies wich enabled them to lead successfully in the transition to a free-market economy. The purpose of the study was to determine what triggered their learning, what learning strategies they used and how they make meaning of their learning experiences. The study, preliminary findings and implications for HRD are described.

In the politically turmoiled and economically destroyed former Eastern Bloc countries, a free-market order is viewed as a quick and efficient way towards recovery. According to Nagy (1992), the countries of this region are faced with two enormous tasks. The first one - the creation of a new political regime incorporating a multiparty system and parliamentary democracy - is in the process of completion; while the second one - the transition from a centrally planned economy to a free-market economy - is far from being completed.

As Sachs (1990, 1990a, 1991) has pointed out, economic liberalization, macroeconomic stabilization, and privatization are necessary conditions for a transition to a free-market economy. Nevertheless, they are not sufficient. It is not enough to create the mechanism and institutions of a market economy if economic culture and entrepreneurial thinking are lacking. Since individual human decision-makers are the moving force behind all economic actions, the sufficiency condition for the transition will be satisfied by the development of a managerial professional class.

According to Nagy (1992) and Cseh (1992), management development should be regarded as an integral and very important part of the historical changes that are now taking place in the former Eastern Bloc countries. Mugur Isarescu, the governor of the central bank in Romania, likes to attribute the country's improving economic performance to what he describes as the "spontaneous restructuring" of the economy as business people and managers of state and private firms learn to adapt to market mechanisms (Anonymous, 1995). This study is rooted in this spontaneous restructuring. Leading that restructuring is Romania's still small, but fast growing, private sector. Its share of gross domestic product (GDP) has grown from nil in 1989 to 35% in 1994, when it accounted for an estimated 51% of employment. Most of these firms are small to mid-size and represent the agricultural, trade, and service sectors (Cseh, 1992; Anonymous, 1995). As Anton, Danciu, and Mitu (1996) pointed out, the profit made by the private sector in 1993 was 4.6 times larger than that of the state sector. They found that "the private sector proved it was capable of absorbing a large share of the labor force made available by public enterprises and of offering equal or even higher salaries to its employees. Private owners are an economic force that is proving to have better skills in administering their assets." (p.72).

Thus, a crucial role in the economic restructuring is played by the senior managers of these small and mid-size companies who are learning to adapt to market mechanisms and to cope with the radical changes characterizing the transitional period from a centrally planned economy to a free-market economy in Romania. Although these managers are now expected to compete in a new market oriented environment, a review of the current literature has revealed that insufficient attention has been given to the managerial concerns implied in the transition process to a free-market economy in Romania (Nicolescu, 1992; Cseh, 1992). In order to develop innovative management development approaches to help managers acquire the needed skills to manage in this transitional period, it is imperative to understand how managers learn what they need to know in order to successfully run

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their businesses in this new environment. No evidence was found of studies of this nature in Romania.

Theoretical Framework

The managerial learning literature shows that learning outside of a formal classroom setting has great importance in managerial learning. Learning from experience, trial and error, social learning, self-directed learning were just a few of the modalities surfacing in the reviewed studies (Burgoyne & Hodgson, 1983; Lombardo, 1985; Zemke, 1985; Stuart, 1986; Akin, 1987; McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988; Dechant, 1989; Stuart, 1989; Marsick & Watkins, 1990; Verlander, 1992; Kops, 1993; Young, 1994; Burgoyne, 1995).

In the wake of all the above evidence, the main assumption of this study is that Romanian senior managers of private companies learn their jobs primarily through informal, incidental means. The theoretical framework of this study is therefore based on Marsick and Watkins's (1990, 1996), Watkins and Marsick's (1992), theory of informal and incidental learning in the workplace. Informed by their research, the authors noted that most learning in the workplace takes place either on the job, in informal settings, or coincident to other work tasks.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to examine critical learning experiences of senior managers of private companies in Romania, which enable them to lead successfully in the transition to a free-market economy, in order to determine what triggered their learning, what strategies they used, and how they make meaning of their learning experiences. In order to attain the purpose of the study, the following research questions will be investigated:

1. What triggered the managers' engagement in the learning activity?
2. How do senior managers of small Romanian private companies learn what they need to know to run their businesses successfully in the new free-market economy?
3. How do managers make meaning of their learning experiences?

Methodology

In studying managerial learning in the transition to a free-market economy in Romania, a qualitative research methodology has been selected. The study is the first of its kind in Romania which explains its exploratory, descriptive nature. The critical incident technique (CIT), which according to Yukl (1981) is especially useful in exploratory research designs to examine very specific, situational aspects of managerial behavior, has been selected as the research method for this study. This technique was applied in this study through in-depth interviews of selected senior managers of successful Romanian private companies.

Population and Sample. The target population selected for this study is that of senior managers of successful small (2-99 employees) Romanian private companies. To select the sample for this study, the top lists of successful private companies of three Romanian counties, Bucharest, and the national list were consulted. These lists are published by the Chamber of Commerce of each county and of Bucharest and a top national list is also compiled and published. Senior managers of small private Romanian companies from the top lists with at least three years of existence were then selected for this study using the snowball or chain sampling technique. Each manager was asked to describe at least three critical incidents according to an interview guide which they received at the time they agreed to participate in the study.

The sample size was determined based primarily on informational considerations (to obtain in-depth description through information rich critical incidents) , and secondarily by the time (limited by the doctoral dissertation requirements) and resources (as the study is funded by the researcher) available to the researcher. According to Patton (1990) "The validity, meaningfulness, and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with the information-richness of the cases selected

and the observational/analytical capabilities of the researcher than with the sample size" (p. 185). Based on these considerations and informed by the literature (where the number of incidents varies from tens to thousands depending upon the depth of the study), the researcher decided on a sample size of fifteen to twenty managers from three counties of the region called Transylvania and from Bucharest, the capital of Romania and its surroundings. These two regions have been selected because the researcher was born and grew up in Transylvania, worked and has an extensive network of relationships in both regions. Managers were selected to represent both genders and the nationalities (Hungarian and Romanian) specific to these regions. Eighteen managers were selected by the researcher with the expectation of generating 40 to 60 critical incidents (the unit of analysis) which is a relevant sample in the critical incident literature.

Data Collection Procedures. The researcher traveled to Romania to identify the participants in the study and to gather data. In order to prepare the design for this study, the researcher had two in-depth telephone conversations from the United States with a senior manager of a joint venture in Transylvania and a senior manager of a private Romanian company in Bucharest. During these conversations, the researcher discussed the topic of her research with the two managers, the sampling process, the data gathering process, and the actual economic situation in Romania. The managers showed enthusiasm and understanding for the topic and offered their help in further networking and sample selection. The manager from Bucharest agreed to participate in a pilot study and a telephone interview with this manager was conducted for this purpose.

All interviews were tape recorded and field notes and memos were taken by the researcher immediately after each interview. The recorded interviews were transcribed and translated by the researcher who is a native Romanian of Hungarian nationality, speaking both languages at mother tongue level. She is multilingual, has learned English in childhood, and has used it extensively in her work by translating, interpreting, and tutoring from English to Romanian and Hungarian, and vice-versa. Although it is impossible to achieve a word-for-word translation, the researcher made an attempt to keep the rendering as consistent as possible. In order to counteract the above mentioned problems characterizing any translation, parts of the translated interviews were re-translated by two persons who are native Romanian and speak fluent English. Adjustments were made when necessary.

Data Analysis. The data analysis process when using the CIT approach involves careful examination of the data, and sorting of the critical incidents into categories and subcategories according to similarities in the reported experiences (Flanagan, 1954; Yukl, 1981; Query & Kreps, 1993). The researcher used the content analysis approach for this purpose.

Patton (1990) defined content analysis as "the process of identifying, coding, and categorizing the primary patterns in the data" (p. 381). According to the author, the first step in content analysis is coding notes and then classifying the content of the data by organizing/ categorizing the data into topics and files. During this process which can be compared to constructing an index for a book or labels for a file system, the researcher will read through the transcripts making comments in the margins about the topic and giving a label to that part of data. In this way the data will be coded into a classification scheme. The importance of this process is presented by the author who quoting George Sand's words in her Nouvelles Lettres d'un Voyageur (1869) writes: 'Classification is Ariadne's clue through the labyrinth of nature' (p.382).

Describing the process of content analysis, Weber (1985) also noted that the central idea in the process is that the many words of the text are classified into much fewer categories. Each category may consist of one, several, or many words. Words, phrase, or other units of text having similar meanings will be classified in the same category. Thus, the main issues which have to be addressed are the design and implementation of a coding scheme and the development of the coding categories. According to the author, during the process of defining the categories the researcher should decide whether or not the categories are to be mutually exclusive and how narrow or broad the categories are to be.

Based on the theoretical framework of this study and on the in-depth knowledge of the data (after transcribing and translating it), the researcher began the preliminary sorting of the data in the following four broad and mutually exclusive categories: Triggers, Learning Strategies, What Was Learned and Influence on Learning of the Transition to Free-Market Economy. This was accomplished by the researcher reading through the translated transcripts, highlighting phrases and making comments in the margins about their meaning in connection with the above categories. After this process all the phrases pertaining to each of the categories were extracted (cut and paste) and

grouped under their specific categories. The next process was the open coding of the data inside each of the categories to obtain specific themes through close examination of the data.

According to Weber (1985), after coding all the text and the text is classified, "the reliability of human coders should be assessed" (p.24). Intercoder reliability is suggested to assess the extent to which content classification produces the same results when the same text is coded by more than one coder. This was achieved in this study by the researcher working closely with her major professor and an American resident with eight years of managerial experience in Romania who coded parts of the data and helped clarify the emergent themes.

Findings

This section presents the preliminary results of the content analysis method used to examine the critical learning experiences of senior managers of small, successful Romanian companies. Wagner and Sternberg (1985) propose that tacit knowledge (knowledge that usually is not openly expressed or taught) plays an important role in intellectual competence in real-world pursuits. According to the authors tacit knowledge is a specific component of intelligent behavior that is important for occupational success, which is informal rather than formal and practical rather than academic. It is the tacit attributions, beliefs, and assumptions which make up the informal and incidental learning. In the following, a number of themes emerged from analyzing the managers meaning making around their learning in the transition to a free-market economy are presented.

Triggers. As the result of open coding inside of this category several themes emerged which are best described by the managers' quotations. One of the main themes to which managers attributed their learning experiences were related to the business environment (e.g. financial instability, lack of resources, new business culture). As one of the participants recalled "It was a time of crisis, the inflation, and we had to design a strategy against the devaluation of our assets,..." [P9, p2] Another participant remembered: "I could have lost easily all my money because there was nobody there to help me, or maybe the problem was that we were very poorly prepared from the point of view of information on how to proceed or how to conduct a business arrangement. We didn't have the bases or the places from where we can get information, we didn't know how to begin something, we didn't have this business culture and the preparation for entering into a contract and getting it through." [P5, p2]

Another theme is related to the relationship with the customer/supplier (e.g. difficulties in doing business based on a contract; dealing with customers who do not pay and with suppliers who do not deliver in time). Some of these issues are portrayed in the following quotes: "We finished the work, made the calculations for the price, and they don't want to pay us." [P8, p5] "We manufactured and sent equipments to one of our trustworthy customers and after 60 days we still didn't receive any money." [P2, p3]

Personal integrity and trust was another emerging theme. One of the participants was still shaken when he remembered how "it happened in Bucharest that the person whom we trusted in managing that branch ripped us off causing big losses for the company." [P7, p9] Another participant who continued the same business in which he was in with some partners before recalled: "We could not agree on investments, I was by myself here, the other partner was from Hungary, and the third one from another city, and they weren't willing to share profits anymore.... What caused the instability for me, was the split from the other company, and the settlements with my old partners." [P9, p1]

Lack of relevant courses was mentioned by a few participants. Remembering about his experience with formal education one of the participants recounted: "So, the courses did not work because Romania has a specific market economy, thus not a mature market economy. I went in vain to a course which explained how to calculate prices because you cannot use the same method here. Or they explained how to deal with the customer. It was also in vain because here things are completely different. Those methods are working in the capitalist market economy, but not in the post-communist, half state owned, half private one. So far, nobody designed a course to explain to me how should I put myself in the shoes of a state employee who is not interested in anything besides what to buy for his/her children tomorrow; why should he/she be interested in selling more? These situations were not woven into courses. Only life could teach you this, so, about how should you bargain, how should you talk, how should you give bribes, tips, pocket money if you want to have

an entrance somewhere, unfortunately this is like this. There is no course for this. There are no courses for management designed to show me how should I buy raw materials or how it would be possible. So, if in one place you cannot find them you have to run to the other place. In the west there is no such situations that there are no raw materials. You call and somebody will bring them to you. While here I have to go and beg the director to produce a little bit from that raw material, "no", then I go to the other, then scandal. So, for these illnesses the course do not offer medication." [P7, p12-13]

Learning Strategies. The main themes under this category were the following: Learning from experience (e.g. from others' and own mistakes, trail and error - "...your improvement comes only by experiencing the failures. [P2, p5]); learning from others (e.g. family, friends, peers, subject experts - "I'm not ashamed to ask questions and I have a lot of friends, and also my father is a constructor and I talk with him about a lot of problems and I ask for his advise." [P6, p8]; "There is a well known professor in Bucharest, who teaches oil manufacturing. And I called him, I made an appointment with him,..".[P9, p5]; "And during these control actions we learned a lot from them [control authorities], how to do it right next time, or which are the right ways to avoid the fines.... We had people who controlled and fined us of course, but they in the same time explained us how to do things right, so next time we knew not to make the same mistake again. With some of them we kept in touch, and they gave us advise in many situations." [P8, p4-5]); networking ("Then I had a classmate in this small western town, we were in highschool together and I told him 'you are there don't you want to take this job, or help me find somebody.' He told me that he can not take it, but he knows somebody who might." [P7, p12]); problem solving based on previous life experiences (" So, generally speaking I tried to rely on my own power and to solve my problems myself." [P5, p3]; "...from what I have seen with my own eyes during my everyday walks in our city and travels in the country when I got a feel for people's points of view and what is going on." [P5, p5]), field trips, reading, market research and some formal learning (courses, lectures).

What Was Learned. The managers reported on learning about the business culture of the transitional period toward a free-market economy (e.g. the necessity of a new mentality; the science of management in general -"We began to learn somehow, I'm telling somehow as we are not 100% clear with how we should do the management, the science of management. So, we are still far away from it, but are much more knowledgeable, so we cannot be ripped of as we were before." [P7, p1-2]; working with the new, but still old system; forging business relationships; forecasting; contracting - "Speaking about what I learned, I only learned that somehow we have to ask more money after entering into the contract because we would be secure if our clients would pay 5% of the contracted amount right at the beginning....to enter into the contract in such a way that we should not be in lost even if they are paying late. Thus, the foreseen bank interest rates to be covered." [P2, p4]; compromising; being persistent), about how to run their own business (e.g. setting company rules and regulations; establishing a lucrative payment system; the necessity of up-dated technology; advertising; human interaction; building credibility, accountability, trustworthiness) and about the need to become better professionals - "This is it, and I want to develop into a much better professional. ....So this was number one, and number two would be, the implementation of modern work techniques to ease my work and to raise my productivity. That's what I meant when I said about changing mentality, to learn from wherever and to use what I learn in my work." [P5, p9-10].

Influence on Learning of the Transition to Free-Market Economy. The recounts of the managers give a vivid picture of the Romanian business environment which has such an effect on the learning and actions of these managers. One of the previously quoted managers who runs a successful business (on the top county list) reflecting on this situation explained that "I am struggling since three years to make it right. It goes towards better, but if the actual government will not do something for us, not necessarily for my type of business, but for us the private owners, I cannot see a more favorable way to continue than we have now. So, finally I cannot say that I have a situation of my own. My case is general as I am dissatisfied with some things, not that I am dissatisfied with my work, but I would like to do things better, more organized, including less stress if some problems could be solved. So, a big problem is that of the inflation which I cannot see solved soon. The other problem is that of cash flow which again I cannot see solved and another problem are the big taxes for which we have some hopes that they could be solved. And another problem which I cannot see solved is that of support from the banks, because we were not born with a money making machine, we worked for the money we have and if at a certain time you want to expend you cannot without the

help of the bank, help which should be reasonable, otherwise you stand in one place and the inflation will outrun you. [P5, p7]

As this study is nearing its completion, additional findings and conclusions will be presented at the conference.

Contribution to New Knowledge in HRD

This study elaborates on the theory of informal and incidental learning in the workplace originally articulated by Marsick and Watkins (1990) adding thick description to the individual learning model. Understanding the nature of the learning of senior managers of Romanian private companies as they transition to a free-market economy may reveal ways to augment and support managers' learning and it may also provide useful hints for designing and implementing management training and development programs in this country. Revealing informal learning processes amidst a radically changing environment with tight resources may prove to be useful to practitioners who work in similar environments. As the 1990s are offering a greater opening to direct foreign trade and foreign investment in Romania, the results of this study should also help Global Human Resource Developers transfer management learning theories and practices across cultural and national boundaries.

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Behaviors Related to Perceptions of Leadership in Self-directed Project Groups

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The purpose of the two studies reported in this article was to gain information on behaviors related to perceptions of leadership in extended project groups, to develop a leader emergence scale that would measure these behaviors, and to use this scale plus short-answer questions to gain information on individuals identified as preferred group leaders. The resultant eight-item scale distinguished between leaders and non-leaders.

Over 7,500 published studies of leadership (Bass, 1990) have resulted in a myriad of theories and lines of research. One of the most enduring of these is the identification of effective leadership behaviors, a program of research that began in the 1950s and 1960s at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Likert, 1967). The task-centered and person-centered leader behaviors identified in early research have given rise to comprehensive theories of leader behavior (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Misumi & Peterson, 1985) and taxonomies of effective behavior (House & Mitchell, 1974; Luthans & Lockwood, 1984; Morse & Wagner, 1978; Page, 1985; Yukl, 1987; Yukl & Nemeroff, 1979). The taxonomies, for the most part, attempt to reconcile general and situational approaches to leadership. Thus, an effective leader is characterized as one who possesses a reservoir of effective behaviors and is able to adapt his or her behavior as necessary to meet the demands of the situation.

Leadership behaviors are in some ways similar to positive roles that are essential for effective group functioning. The two primary group roles of task and maintenance functions (Bales, 1953; Benne & Sheats, 1948) have been used in factor analyses of questionnaire measures of leadership behavior (Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Halpin & Winer, 1957). Participatory leadership, "the use of various decision procedures that allow other people some influence over the leader's decisions" (Yukl, 1994, p. 157), was considered as a category of behavior distinct from task-oriented and relationship-oriented behavior in the Michigan leadership studies, but not in the Ohio State studies, in which consultation was considered as part of relationship-centered behavior. The relationship between groupwork and leadership is particularly important today as teamwork becomes increasingly prevalent in organizations (Ancona, 1990; Bettenhausen, 1991) and as universities continue to offer leadership courses and programs that, more often than not, use group activities to develop leadership skills (Bass, 1990). Self-directed or autonomous work teams offer opportunities for individuals to demonstrate their leadership capabilities.

Effective Group Leadership Behaviors

Several researchers (Larson & LaFasto, 1989; Sweeney & Allen, 1988; Thamhain & Wilemon, 1988, Kolb, 1996) have examined the behaviors of officially designated team leaders. Less attention, however, has been focused on the behaviors of unofficial or emergent leaders. Emergent leaders are members of groups who exert significant influence over other members even though no formal authority has been vested in them (Schneier & Goktepe, 1983). Leaders emerge as group members reach a consensus "that one (or more) individual(s) could serve the group more usefully in attaining group goals than the other members" (Bass, 1981, p. 13).

A recent study by Pavitt, Whitchurch, McClurg, and Petersen (1995) examined both the behavior of emergent leaders and perceptions of group members. First, members of a small group communication class identified the following eight behaviors as descriptive of an ideal leader: stated the group's procedure, encouraged group member participation, encouraged harmony among group members, summarized the group's decision, facilitated group discussion, played devil's advocate, managed conflict, and kept group discussion organized. A second group of students used questionnaires developed from these behaviors to evaluate each other on behaviors and measures of

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leadership following a 55- to 75-minute videotaped group discussion. Trained observers viewed the tapes and coded the actual behaviors exhibited by each group member. The resulting frequencies were then compared to the ratings of behaviors completed by group members. The results indicated that the questionnaire ratings, which were based on perceptions of behavior, were far better predictors of leader evaluations than measures of actual behavior, which were derived from observation of the videotaped discussion. The researchers concluded that "participants judged behavioral performance with some accuracy only in those rare cases in which instances of the behavior's performance were relatively numerous, but in the vast majority of cases, made behavioral judgments that were largely prototype-based" (p. 259).

The findings concerning member perceptions are important because actual leadership behaviors are difficult to document in situations other than brief discussion groups and would be of limited value, in most cases, without information about the antecedents and repercussions of the specific behaviors. The Pavitt et al. (1995) study suggests that, at least in studies of leader emergence, questionnaires measuring perceptions of group members are an appropriate means of gathering data on leader behavior.

Study One

Behaviors that allow members to emerge as leaders in discussion-centered groups may or may not be similar to those that are important when groups are engaged in extended projects that combine discussion with execution of tasks. The purpose of the first study reported here was to gain information about behavior related to perceptions of leadership in extended project groups. The following research question was posed:

> *RQ1: How do group members describe the leadership-relevant behavior of individuals they perceive as group leaders?*

Method

Sample. Participants in this study were 60 undergraduate students (28 female; 32 male) enrolled in two sections of an upper-division applied organizational communication class at a large eastern university. Two-thirds of the students were seniors, and one-third were juniors. Just under 50 percent of the sample were business majors, one fourth were liberal arts majors, and the remaining one-fourth majored in environmental resource management. The average age was 21.

Procedures. At the beginning of the eighth week of class, the students were assigned to mixed-sex groups of four or five members each. Each group formed a mock company and completed two projects during the second half of the semester. The first was a human resource task involving the hiring and development of an employee. The second was a demonstration involving a problem-solving situation and the methodology each group used in resolving the problem. The groups in this study fulfill the conditions of realistic "full-fledged groups" set forth by Poole (1983).

At the end of the semester, students responded to the following question regarding the leadership behavior of each of the members of their group:

> *If you believe that this person served in a leadership role, please list the traits and/or behaviors exhibited by this person that, in your opinion, led to his or her emergence as a leader. Leave blank if you believe that this person did not serve in a leadership role.*

Coding System. Using analytic induction techniques similar to those employed by Vangelisti, Daly, and Rudnick (1991) and Dolin and Booth-Butterfield (1993), a research assistant and I developed 19 categories of leader traits and behaviors. This technique involved separating the short-answer responses into phrase units that the researchers then grouped to provide the closest conceptual fit or cluster. The categories were examined and modified until a workable category system emerged. Complete descriptions of the categories were developed, and the data were then coded according to those descriptions. After a training session in which both the research assistant and I coded 15 percent of the 399 responses, the research assistant coded the remainder. Twenty

percent of the responses randomly selected were then cross-coded by me to establish reliability. Percentage of agreement between coders across all categories was 94 percent (pi = .93), which was judged acceptable.

Results

The following 19 categories of leader behavior emerged from the phrase sort: 1) took charge, 2) took charge when necessary, 3) was task oriented, 4) was organized, 5) established/facilitated effective group procedures, 6) was goal oriented, 7) led discussion, 8) had high performance standards, 9) exhibited knowledge of and/or experience in the task, 10) was committed/dedicated to the task 11) initiated core ideas for the project, 12) contributed ideas, suggestions, opinions, 13) solicited ideas/suggestions/opinions, 14) had good communication skills, 15) worked well with others, 16) motivated others, 17) displayed effective conflict management skills, 18) was self-confident, 19) was domineering/controlling. All responses could be coded using the 19 categories and one additional category for non-responses.

Instructions for the short-answer question directed respondents to leave a blank if they did not perceive a particular member as a leader. Overall, 41 of 59 participants (69%) were described by others as leaders in the short-answer responses; 266 total phrases were coded from 110 responses, an average of 2.42 per response. The most frequently mentioned behaviors are reported in Table 1.

Table 1. Behaviors Mentioned Most Frequently in Response to Leadership Question

Behavior	*Percentage*
Contributed ideas, suggestions, opinions	31
Took charge	26
Exhibited knowledge of/experience in task	24
Was committed and dedicated to task	16
Was domineering and controlling	16
Established effective procedures	16
Worked well with Others	16

Study Two

More than two-thirds of the group members in Study One were described by other group members as leaders. While this finding might indicate that leadership was shared, it also is likely that, as has been reported in past studies, (Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, 1991), participants were overly generous in attributing leadership characteristics and behaviors to fellow group members. This tendency could obscure emergence of the behaviors that are performed by primary leaders. I decided, therefore, to ask group members in Study Two to make a forced choice of one preferred leader and to describe reasons for the choice of that person. Sociometric choice of the leader by peer ratings and secret ballot has been used repeatedly in the leadership literature and has demonstrated strong predictive validity (Bass, 1981; Goktepe & Schneier, 1989). Participants also were asked to describe the behaviors exhibited by the preferred leaders that led to their being identified as such.

Additionally, participants rated each group member on an eight-item leader emergence scale that consisted of five items drawn from the short-answer responses analyzed in Study One and three items developed by Kent and Moss (1990). The scale is described below in the *Measures* paragraph. The purpose of the present study was to use this expanded measure and responses to short-answer questions to gain information about preferred leaders and the remaining sample (called non-leaders for ease of discussion). Some of the behaviors mentioned as important by group members in Study One appeared to be behaviors that would be exhibited by effective members, as well as leaders. If these non-directive behaviors are crucial to leadership, there should be differences

in scores between a sample of preferred leaders and non-leaders. If these behaviors are important for all members, including leaders, however, there may be no significant differences between the two samples. Thus,

RQ1: Does the expanded leader emergence scale distinguish between preferred leaders and non-leaders?

The short-answer responses analyzed in Study One included descriptions of leadership behaviors of two-thirds of the sample. The inclusion of such a large portion of the sample might have obscured the behaviors that were exhibited by those who were primary, or preferred, leaders. The second research question addresses the behaviors of the preferred leaders:

RQ2: How are preferred leaders described by group members?

Sample. Participants in this study were 123 undergraduate students (64 female; 59 male) enrolled in four sections of an upper-division applied organizational communication class at a large eastern university. Fifty-four percent of the students were seniors, and 42 percent were juniors. Forty-seven percent of the sample were business majors, 39 percent were liberal arts majors, and the remaining 14 percent majored in environmental resource management. The average age was 21.

Measures. A research assistant and I examined the frequencies of occurrence for the 19 categories of leader behaviors identified in Study One to determine what macro-categories would best capture the essence of these behaviors. After the categories were selected, the wording of the individual items was decided. The expanded eight-item scale consisted of the following three items from the Kent and Moss (1990) scale and five new items: 1) assumed a leadership role, 2) led the conversation, 3) influenced group goals and decisions, 4) took charge of the group, 5) was focused on the task, 6) exhibited knowledge of and/or experience in the task, 7) encouraged collaborative effort and invited input from other group members, and 8) contributed valuable ideas, suggestions, and opinions. Group members completed the scale for each of the members of their group. The Kent and Moss items were included because of their demonstrated reliability in identifying emergent leaders in discussion groups. All items were analyzed individually to gain maximum information concerning the ability of each to distinguish between preferred leaders and non-leaders. In addition to the short answer question used in Study One, participants also were asked to respond to the following two items:

If you could choose just one person from your group to serve as the leader for another similar group project, who would that person be?

Please state briefly the one primary reason why you would choose this person.

Coding. A preliminary analysis of the short-answer data indicated that the coding system developed in Study One could be used to classify the responses to both short-answer questions. After a training session in which both the research assistant and I coded 10 percent of the 434 responses, the research assistant coded the remainder. Twenty percent of the responses randomly selected were then cross-coded by me to establish reliability. Inter-coder agreement was 95 percent (pi = .94) for the general leadership question and 94 percent (pi = .93), for the preferred leader question, both of which were judged acceptable.

Procedures. The procedures were the same as those reported in Study One. The choice-of-preferred-leader questions were administered at the same time as the leader emergence measure.

Results

Reliability. Reliability as assessed using Cronbach's alpha for the three items (questions 1-3) from Kent and Moss's (1990) scale was .94; reliability for the eight-item scale was .94.

Differences Between Leaders and Non-Leaders Individuals who were identified as preferred leaders by at least two group members other than themselves were labeled the "preferred leader

group." Individuals who shared leadership with another person in their group were included in the category of preferred leaders, but those who were mentioned by just one person (usually the individual everyone else named as the leader) were not. A total of 31 individuals from the total sample of 123 (25%) were identified as preferred leaders.

To answer Research Question 1, differences between the means of the preferred leader group and the non-leader group were calculated. Because of the unequal Ns in the preferred leader and non-leader samples, a GLM ANOVA procedure in SAS was used to examine differences between the means. The results for the ANOVAs were as follows: three-item scale (F = 73.81, df = 1/111, p = .0001; leader M = 5.34 [0.60], non-leader M = 3.80 [0.94]); eight-item scale (F = 61.86, df = 1/111, p = .0001; leader M = 5.53 [0.45], non-leader M = 4.32 [0.82]). Thus, the expanded scale does distinguish between leaders and non-leaders. Also, each individual item distinguishes between the two groups. ANOVAs for individual items are reported in Table 2.

Table 2. Means, Standard Deviations, and F Tests for Preferred Leaders and Non-Leader Groups

	Preferred Leaders		*Non-Leaders*		
Item #	*Means*	*s.d.*	*Means*	*s.d.*	*F*
1	5.34	0.85	3.35	1.11	82.54***
2	5.31	0.67	3.82	0.98	61.44***
3	5.38	0.44	4.21	0.92	47.40***
4	4.96	0.82	3.15	1.10	71.34***
5	5.92	0.61	5.23	1.04	12.30***
6	5.76	0.62	4.87	0.90	26.30***
7	5.53	0.72	4.71	1.06	16.28***
8	6.03	0.51	5.22	0.97	20.04***

***$p < .001$

Qualitative Data The same question analyzed in Study One also was analyzed for Study Two. In Study Two, however, only responses pertaining to the 31 individuals identified as preferred leaders are reported; 225 total phrases were coded from 128 responses, an average of 1.76 per response. The top five responses are reported in Table 3.

Table 3. Behaviors Mentioned Most Frequently in Response to Leadership Question for Preferred Leaders

Behavior	*Percentage*
Was committed/dedicated to the task	26
Took charge	21
Exhibited knowledge of/experience in task	16
Contributed ideas, suggestions, opinions	15
Exhibited self-confidence	14

The second short-answer question, "Please state briefly the one primary reason why you would choose (this person) as the preferred leader (of your group)," was analyzed in terms of responses concerning the 31 preferred leaders. For these individuals, a total of 122 phrases were coded from 87 responses, an average of 1.4 phrases per respondent. Percentages were based on the total number of responses. The following categories were those most frequently cited: took charge (29%), was committed/dedicated (23%), was task-oriented (16%), exhibited knowledge of and/or experience in the task (15%), and worked well with others (14%).

Discussion

Emergent Leader Behaviors. The pattern of responses to the short-answer questions asked of respondents in the two studies, particularly the differences between responses in Study One, which were based on descriptions of everyone who was mentioned as a leader, and responses in Study Two, which were based on responses only for preferred leaders, provide additional information about differences between leaders and non-leaders. One behavior in particular--contributed valuable ideas, suggestions, and opinions--may have been overstated as an important leader behavior in Study One. Although this behavior remained important in Study Two, its frequency was reduced by half when only data for preferred leaders were examined. Since one can assume that all members contribute ideas, suggestions, and opinions during the course of a project, one explanation for this finding is that this behavior is one that came to mind when members were searching for something positive exhibited by someone who did not take charge or demonstrate other characteristics of leadership. This suggests that, as reported by Zaccaro, Foti, and Kenny (1991), members' tendencies to be generous in attributing leadership behaviors to other members might obscure what actually contributes to emergent leadership.

Two other categories--was committed/dedicated to the task and exhibited self-confidence--increased substantially in frequency between Study One and Study Two. Although assessments of the latter behavior might be significantly influenced by perceptions of leadership in general (e.g., one is a leader; thus, she or he must be self-confident), the assessment of task commitment seems to be more behaviorally based. One of the major differences between short discussion groups in which participants are required to participate in a timed discussion and longer project groups is that participants vary more in amount of effort exerted. Not all participate equally in a timed discussion, of course, but active participation in such groups requires only a slight additional effort beyond what is required to receive participation points or class credit. In project groups, however, a substantial amount of effort is required for a positive outcome. Not everyone participates equally in that effort. The comments classified as "was committed and dedicated" lead me to believe that group members were well aware of the level of contribution of the various members. Also, since the project tasks in this study required collection of resource materials, preparation of audiovisual materials and handouts, collection and analysis of data, and preparation of written reports, it would be difficult for members to be deceived about which members did what work.

Although findings reported by Pavitt et al. (1995) suggest that perceptions are what matter in ratings of leader emergence, it appears to be important to distinguish between perceptions and actual behaviors in terms of effort extended.. The results of this study suggest that leaders in small groups actually do expend more effort than anyone else and that this level of commitment is a primary factor in their emergence as leaders. If this interpretation is correct, it has implications for the teamwork focus that currently exists in today's organizations and may also help to explain why individuals who agree with teamwork in concept often have negative experiences when actually placed on teams. Teamwork certainly is not working as expected if most of the work is being done by a few people. On a more positive note, however, an alternative explanation is that people who emerge as leaders have a higher degree of commitment to tasks and a greater desire to get the job done than do most individuals and, as a result, simply take charge.

Use of the Scales. The expanded leader emergence scale distinguished between leaders and non-leaders, indicating that this scale shows promise as a measure of leadership in extended project groups. The results for the phrase sort in Study One were used to develop specific wording for the expanded leader emergence measure used in Study Two. Findings from the latter study suggest, however, that, Item 5, "was focused on the task," might better distinguish between leaders and non-leaders if the wording were changed to emphasize a different aspect of task--commitment and dedication rather than focus; thus, the item would read, "Was committed and dedicated to the task." Item 5 was the item that most strongly limited reliability of the expanded eight-item measure. It was least discriminating in distinguishing between leaders and non-leaders, even though it revealed a significant difference between leader and non-leader means. Future research might test the efficacy and reliability of a scale consisting of the following: 1) assumed a leadership role, 2) led the conversation, 3) influenced group goals and decisions, 4) took charge of the group, 5) was committed and dedicated to the task, 6) exhibited knowledge of and/or experience in the task, 7) worked well with others, and 8) contributed valuable ideas, suggestions, and opinions.

Implications for HRD

Popular wisdom on leadership stresses the importance of involving others in decision making. The results of this study suggest that, at least when it comes to being viewed as a leader when one is not in an official leadership position, taking charge is an acceptable, and desired behavior, as long as the leader also appears to respect the ideas of other people. This has implications for professionals involved in planning and executing leadership and management development programs, as well as for those who specialize in employee development.

The leadership emergence scale developed from these studies should be a useful tool for HRD scholars and practitioners. Early identification of individuals with leadership potential would allow for development of this potential, benefiting both individuals and organizations. Those who aspire to leadership positions, but who do not emerge as leaders in management development situations, could receive feedback that might help them develop their leadership skills.

Lastly, with today's emphasis on teamwork, more information is needed on the distribution of work among team members. This information would be useful in addressing perceived or actual inequities in work load.

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Never let them see you smile: The lack of expressiveness among senior organizational leaders

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Folk theory and empirical studies generally indicate that women tend to be somewhat more expressive than men. This study looked at the levels of self-reported expressiveness among senior organizational leaders (781 males, 669 females). In several key organizational positions, including CEO, males reported themselves to be significantly more expressive than females. Further, both males and females reported extremely low levels of expressiveness. Potential reasons for these findings and their impact on HRD are discussed.

The organizational culture in Western society is influenced by the rational traditions of theorists such as Weber, Taylor, and Fayol (Sashkin, 1981). These traditions call for the cognitive "dehumanization" of organizations. However, recent physiological findings regarding emotion in individuals has revealed that cognition does not operate alone (Derryberry & Tucker, 1992). The evolution of the human brain has resulted in a complex system in which emotion influences cognition in areas such as learning, attention, and memory, and cognition influences emotion in areas such as attributions and appraisals. Because of the biological interdependence of cognition and emotion, leaders must work with organizational members across both cognitive and emotive structures in order to maximize their potential. This study explores the extent to which leaders demonstrate one of these structures--emotion.

Conceptual Framework

Essentially, organizations try to create impersonal and highly cognitive or rational frameworks or structures which would preclude the emergence of emotion in the first place. A key consequence of this type of "bureaucratic" control, according to Weber, is:

> The dominance of a spirit of formalistic impersonality, ...without hatred or passion, and hence without affection or enthusiasm. The dominant norms are concepts of straightforward duty without regard to personal [and emotional] considerations (Boone & Bowen, 1987, p. 16).

Thus, theory informs us that the ideal organization type is one in which emotion has no place. However, people are both rational and emotional beings. Leadership research indicates that these very organizational structures created to facilitate improved performance and increase capital may be at odds with individual leadership strategies, which supposedly incorporate both rational and emotional components (Yukl, 1981), to do the same.

Emotion Theory. Emotion has often been considered irrelevant to the important work of logic and the scientific method. Firmly rooted in classical Greek philosophy, the Western world, in particular, has regarded emotionality as the antithesis of rationality. In The Nicomachean Ethics (Treddenick, 1955), Aristotle explains that "the soul is part rational and part irrational" (p. 88). Within the realm of irrationality exist the emotions. It is this bi-polar view of emotionality and rationality which has become the norm in Western industrialized society.

Emotions became the subject of serious modern inquiry in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Although there is no classically accepted definition of emotion itself, two streams of emotion theory are generally acknowledged (Hochschild, 1983). The first is grounded in the biological concepts of Darwin and supplemented by the philosophies of, among others, James and Freud. Called organismic or naturalistic, this model focuses on the biological antecedents of emotion holding that "emotions are indubitably physiological" (Davidson & Cacioppo, 1992, p. 21). To varying degrees, these theorists believe the true nature of emotion is biological and that

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pure, core emotions can be observed in all people regardless of cultural influence. In this tradition today, Scherer and his associates examine the physical experience and expression of emotion (Scherer, 1988). Zajonc and Ekman have significantly contributed to this stream of theory by their studies of physical arousal and emotional expression (Gallois, 1993).

The second stream of theory is grounded in the social concepts of Dewey, Gerth, Mills, and Goffman (Hochschild, 1983). Known as symbolic interactionism or social constructionist, this model places emphasis on the social context of emotion. Emotions are a product of a dynamic relationship with the social system and are created and recreated throughout the interaction. While acceptance of biological components is implicit to most of these theorists, they are of lesser significance in understanding the nature of the experience and expression of emotion. Today, theorists such as Lazarus and Harré feel that emotional labels are attributed only after individuals cognitively assess their contextual experience (Gallois, 1993).

These streams of research have led to both empirical and theoretical works on emotional expression. Studies in different traditions of expressiveness indicate that individuals who tend to be unexpressive have higher levels of physiological reaction to emotion-eliciting situations than those individuals who tend to be expressive (Notarius & Levenson, 1979; Weinberger, Schwartz, & Davidson, 1979). Later studies in the suppression of emotional expression found that suppression elicits an increase in sympathetic nervous system arousal which, if excessive or sustained for a long period of time, may cause adverse health outcomes (Levenson, 1993). The popular *Executive EQ* (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997) presented a mix of theory and research on the importance of emotional intelligence, which includes expression, in successful leadership. Conger (1993) argued that organizational support for a leader stems largely from that individual's emotional expressiveness, which is an important element of purpose, persuasion, and inspiration.

Leadership Theory. Leadership theories and research to explore those theories have largely occurred within this century. The pervasive trends in leadership theory and research, according to Bryman (1992), have been within four stages. The four stages are identified as: Trait Approach (prior to the late 1940s); Style Approach (late 1940s to late 1960s); Contingency Approach (late 1960s to early 1980s); and New Leadership Approaches (since 1980s). These approaches all have a basic assumption or theme. Trait Approach is based on the idea that leadership is innate; Style Approach addresses the belief that leader behavior is tied to leadership effectiveness; Contingency Approach has to do with the premise that effective leadership is affected by the situation; and, finally, New Leadership Approach (charismatic leadership) focuses on the position that leaders need a vision (Bryman, 1992).

Early work in the Style Approach led to the conclusion that effective leadership is both task oriented and people oriented. Studies conducted at Harvard in the late 1940s showed that the most effective leaders were those who engaged in a high volume of both task-oriented and socio-emotional behavior (Bales, 1958; Sashkin, Gorman, Higgins, Johnson, & Schwandt, 1995). These studies also revealed that leaders sometimes demonstrated only task-oriented behavior, but they rarely engaged in only socio-emotional behavior. The Ohio State studies had similar conclusions (Sashkin, et al, 1995). The two most prevalent categories of behavior found in leaders were "initiating structure" and "consideration" behaviors. Again, the most effective leaders engage in high levels of both task and interpersonal activities.

Seminal work on charisma and, possibly, charismatic leadership was done by Max Weber (1864-1920). According to Bryman (1992), Weber recognized three types of authority, each claiming a legitimate exercise of power. The three types are: authority based on rational grounds or legal authority; authority based on traditional grounds or age-old traditions/customs; and authority based on charismatic ground or devotion to exceptional sanctity, heroism, or exemplary character of an individual person. These types of authority were based on an ideal state and could not be applied to organizations.

The limitations in scope of these earlier approaches led to a growing interest in the concept of "transforming leadership," a term which was first adopted by James MacGregor Burns in 1978 (Bryman, 1992). Burns made the distinction between leaders and managers based on the older works of Weber which looked at the differences between economic and non-economic sources of authority. Thus, the beginning of the use of the term "transformational leadership" referred to a more complex and higher level relationship between the leader and follower. This

type of relationship relied on satisfying higher needs, engaging the full person to meet mutual stimulation and reaching elevations in the relationship which could convert followers to leaders and leaders to moral agents. This was contrasted with more traditional, supervisory, management approaches of exchange for services/duties, rewards, pay, security, and other compensations which were now referred to as "transactional leadership" (Sashkin, 1995).

Words throughout the literature which have been used to describe transformational leaders and leadership include passion, care, intensity, confidence, self-confidence, respect, values, and trust—each of which is considered an "emotion" or "emotion-laden" word (Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, & O'Connor, 1987; Clore, Ortony, & Foss, 1987; Etzioni, 1988; Ward & Throop, 1989). Bass, who writes that transformational leadership comprises charisma, even states that, by emotional arousal initiated by the charismatic leader, a sense of excitement is generated in the followers (Bryman, 1992). In Sashkin's (Rosenbach, Sashkin, & Harburg, 1996) work, several of the scales of The Visionary Leader/The Leadership Profile (TLP) either implicitly or explicitly address emotional/feeling issues: Communications Leadership, "...they [transformational leaders] pay attention to and appreciate followers' feelings" (p. 7), Credible Leadership, "Because they trust others they are themselves trusted" (p. 7), Caring Leadership, "Transformational leaders consistently and constantly express concern for others" (p. 7), Confident Leadership, "Transformational leaders have a basic sense of self-assurance" (p. 7), and Principled Leadership, "An effective transformational leader helps develop and support certain shared values and beliefs" (p. 7).

The ability to express emotion may thus be considered a fundamental characteristic of interpersonal relationships in the work environment, in particular when a leadership role is involved. "Consideration", "support" and "group-maintenance" are all leadership functions which are highly emotive in nature and which are found in almost every leadership theory to date (Yukl, 1981; Sashkin, et.al., 1995). If research indicates that the most effective leaders display high levels of both task-oriented and emotionally-oriented behaviors (or transactional and transformational leadership behaviors), it is reasonable to believe that the most senior leaders in organizations will display high levels of both types of behavior. Because of the negative connotations often associated with key elements of emotionally-oriented behavior (i.e., the expression of emotion), this study focused only on the extent to which senior leaders engaged in that behavior.

Methods

The Leadership Profile (TLP), with various demographic questions, was administered to 8000 members of the American Management Association (AMA) in 1995; 1453 members returned the survey (approximately 18%). The respondents included 781 males and 669 females; three individuals did not respond to the gender item. A four-item scale which measured expressiveness was isolated from the TLP and tested for reliability using Cronbach alpha. The scale was then used to determine demographic differences between leaders' expressiveness. Specifically, expressiveness differences were tested between male and female leaders using independent samples *t*-tests for the entire sample and for the six leadership positions given by the respondents (Chief Executive Officer, Chief Operating Officer, Chief Financial Officer, Executive Vice President, Vice President, and Other). Also, ANOVAs were conducted to determine expressiveness differences between the above positions by gender.

The four items isolated from the TLP which were used to determine expressiveness included:

1. I show I care about others.
2. I express appreciation when people perform well.
3. I show concern for the feelings of others.
4. I communicate feelings as well as ideas.

The Cronbach alpha for the above items was .7646. A Cronbach alpha of .70 or higher is much more significant for scales with fewer items (less than ten) than it is for scales with more items (Spector, 1992; Cortina, 1993). As a result, the scale was considered to be reliable for use to conduct further analyses with the data.

Results

The potential range of scores for expressivity was 4.00 (expressiveness to "little or no extent") to 20.00 (expressiveness to a "very great extent"). The range of scores for male and female leaders by position is represented in Table 1.

Table 1. Range of Self-reported Expressiveness Scores by Gender for Leadership Positions

	CEO	COO	CFO	EVP	VP	Other
Male	4-16	4-13	4-14	4-13	4-15	4-15
Female	4-13	4-13	5-18	4-14	4-13	4-15

The first test conducted was an independent samples *t*-test to determine if gender differences in expressiveness existed among senior leaders. Male leaders rated themselves as significantly more expressive than female leaders (overall mean for males, 8.20; overall mean for females, 7.40, $p<.001$). This difference in expressiveness between male and female leaders led to subsequent analysis of gender differences based on the position held by the leader.

The sample was sorted based on the six positions given by the respondents: Chief Executive Officer (CEO), Chief Operating Officer (COO), Chief Financial Officer (CFO), Executive Vice President (EVP), Vice President (VP), and Other. Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to determine gender differences at each of the positions. Males reported themselves to be significantly more expressive than females at the CEO ($p<.001$), COO ($p<.05$), VP ($p<.01$), and Other ($p<.001$) positions (Table 2).

Table 2. Self-reported Expressiveness Means/Standard Deviations by Gender for Leadership Positions

	CEO***	COO*	CFO	EVP	VP**	Other***
Males	8.40 (2.46)	8.08 (2.20)	8.56 (2.09)	7.90 (2.27)	7.83 (2.39)	8.61 (2.66)
Females	7.02 (2.01)	6.52 (2.64)	8.55 (2.48)	7.29 (2.31)	7.27 (2.24)	7.49 (2.35)

Significance levels for independent samples *t*-tests: *$p<.05$; **$p<.01$; ***$p<.001$

A subsequent ANOVA was conducted to determine expressiveness differences among positions for both male and female leaders. Although post-hoc analyses revealed no significant differences between positions for male leaders, the overall F-ratio (Table 3) indicated that some linear combination of responses by male leaders generated a significant self-reported difference in expressiveness, $F(5, 737) = 2.55$, $p<.027$. The overall F-ratio for female leaders also indicates a significant difference between leadership positions, $F(5,628) = 4.12$, $p<.001$ (Table 4). However, post-hoc analyses indicated that female CFOs rated themselves as more expressive than did COO, CEO, and VP respondents. Differences between CFOs and EVP and Other respondents were not significant.

Table 3. ANOVA Table for Expressiveness of Male Respondents by Leadership Position

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob
Between Groups	5	73.46	14.69	2.55	.027
Within Groups	737	4243.21	5.76		
Total	742	4316.66			

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Table 4. ANOVA Table for Expressiveness of Female Respondents by Leadership Position

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob
Between Groups	5	107.35	21.47	4.12	.001
Within Groups	628	3274.07	5.21		
Total	633	3381.42			

Discussion/Conclusion

The difference between male and female leader self-reports of expressiveness raises some interesting questions. Emotion research indicates that, in general, women are better at both encoding and decoding emotion; in other words, women are better at expressing emotion (Gallois, 1993). Among senior organizational leadership in this sample, the men report themselves to be better at encoding emotion. There are several possibilities for this difference.

First, it is possible that women who have been so successful in a male dominated environment which traditionally does not value emotional expression have learned to suppress their expressiveness. Davis, LaRosa, and Foshee (1992) point out that "women must 'manage' their sexuality and gender as a necessary component of organizational membership" (p. 524). Jones and Gallois (1989) found that women are more likely to change their behavior according to the social context, becoming more "masculine" when necessary. Another possibility is that, since emotional expressiveness is not highly valued and since women still have minority representation in senior leadership positions, women leaders may be exaggerating their perceptions of how much emotion they express on the job. Stereotypic feminine behavior is institutionalized in non-leadership roles; therefore, women strive for a balance between masculinity, which is valued in leaders but only to a modest extent in female leaders, and femininity, which associates their role with non-leaders (Davis, LaRosa, & Foshee, 1992). A third possibility is that men self-report slightly higher emotional expressiveness due to the changing culture which is just beginning to accept "feminine" traits such as expressiveness.

While the overall self-reported expressiveness differences between male and female leaders is statistically significant, that difference is so slight (.80 points) it is not very meaningful. What *is* meaningful about the self-reported expressiveness scores, however, is how very low they are. The mean scores of all positions indicate that senior leaders express care, appreciation, and concern for others to, at best, a slight extent. This suggests that senior leaders are not taking responsibility for group maintenance functions, in particular the support functions (Yukl, 1981). As indicated earlier, most theories of leadership include some type of support or consideration for subordinates as an important factor in effective leadership (Yukl, 1981). The findings of this study reveal that one may be effective enough as a leader to achieve the most senior positions in the organization and still be almost completely lacking in the ability, or willingness, to demonstrate, or express, support for others.

HRD professionals face the issue of lack of leader expressiveness on several fronts. As members of organizations, they must confront the same lack of emotional feedback from senior leadership as all other organizational members. But, perhaps more importantly, HRD professionals are in a position to act as liaisons between senior leadership and organizational members. This shift from a classic training and development role to an internal consultant role means HRD professionals must assume a more strategic position in the organizational structure (J. Gilley, personal communication, July, 1996). Such a position will enable HRD professionals to work more closely with senior leadership to mitigate the negative outcomes (personal and organizational) of continued emotional suppression.

Additionally, HRD professionals are often expected to ensure that the "human resources" of the organization are operating at peak efficiency. One central mechanism for accomplishing this task is to provide feedback (Rummler & Brache, 1995). In other words, do organizational members get information about their performance? If senior leaders "express appreciation when people perform well" to little or no extent, it is reasonable to assume that people may not be getting positive feedback, if they get any feedback at all. In an internal consultant capacity, HRD

professionals may be able to find ways to provide that positive feedback to employees and, in turn, help increase the overall level of organizational performance.

Many scholars and practitioners are now advocating that organizational learning is equally important to organizational performance in system survival (e.g., Bahlmann, 1990; Senge, 1990; Croswell, 1996). Recognizing employees for a job well done—again, showing appreciation for the performance of others—is very important to empowering employees in a learning organization (Watkins & Marsick, 1993). Watkins and Marsick (1993) also point out that supervisors play a central role in creating a learning organization by virtue of caring enough to work with employees to balance stressful conflicts between family and work. In other words, the ability to show care and concern for the employee through supervisor actions is vital to establishing a learning organization. Thus, emotional expressiveness may be considered important to facilitating organizational learning. Nevertheless, these implications of emotional expressiveness for HRD are implicitly drawn. Further study on a wide range of issues stemming from this research is certainly warranted.

Future studies should attempt to understand why senior leaders report such low expressiveness. Are they simply underestimating their expressiveness? Are they truly abdicating respsonsibility for support functions? If so, to whom are they delegating these functions? Are HRD professionals assuming this role? If these responsibilities are not being assumed by anyone in leadership, what are the ramifications for the well-being of the subordinates and for the organization itself? What can the HRD professional do to reduce potential negative ramifications? Also, further study should be conducted to incorporate both self and other reports of leadership among senior leaders. Finally, further study should be conducted to understand why the differences between male and female leaders occurred and if such differences can be replicated in another study.

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